

Outline:

- Black Hole Astrophysics.
- Dark Stars - A Newtonian Derivation.
- General Relativity - crash course.
- Time Dilation.
- Gravitational Lensing.

Black Holes in Astrophysics

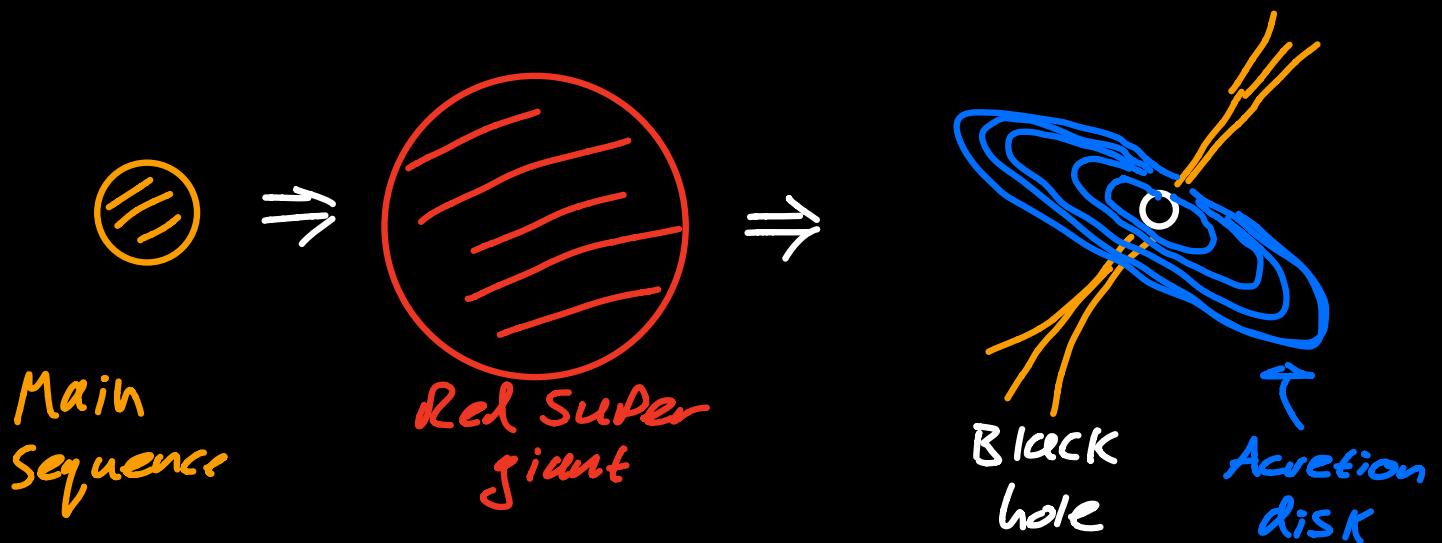
Different Mass Black Holes:

- Stellar Mass Black Holes:

$$3M_{\odot} \lesssim M \lesssim 30M_{\odot}$$

End state of stars with core
More massive $\sim 2.17M_{\odot}$ (in theory)

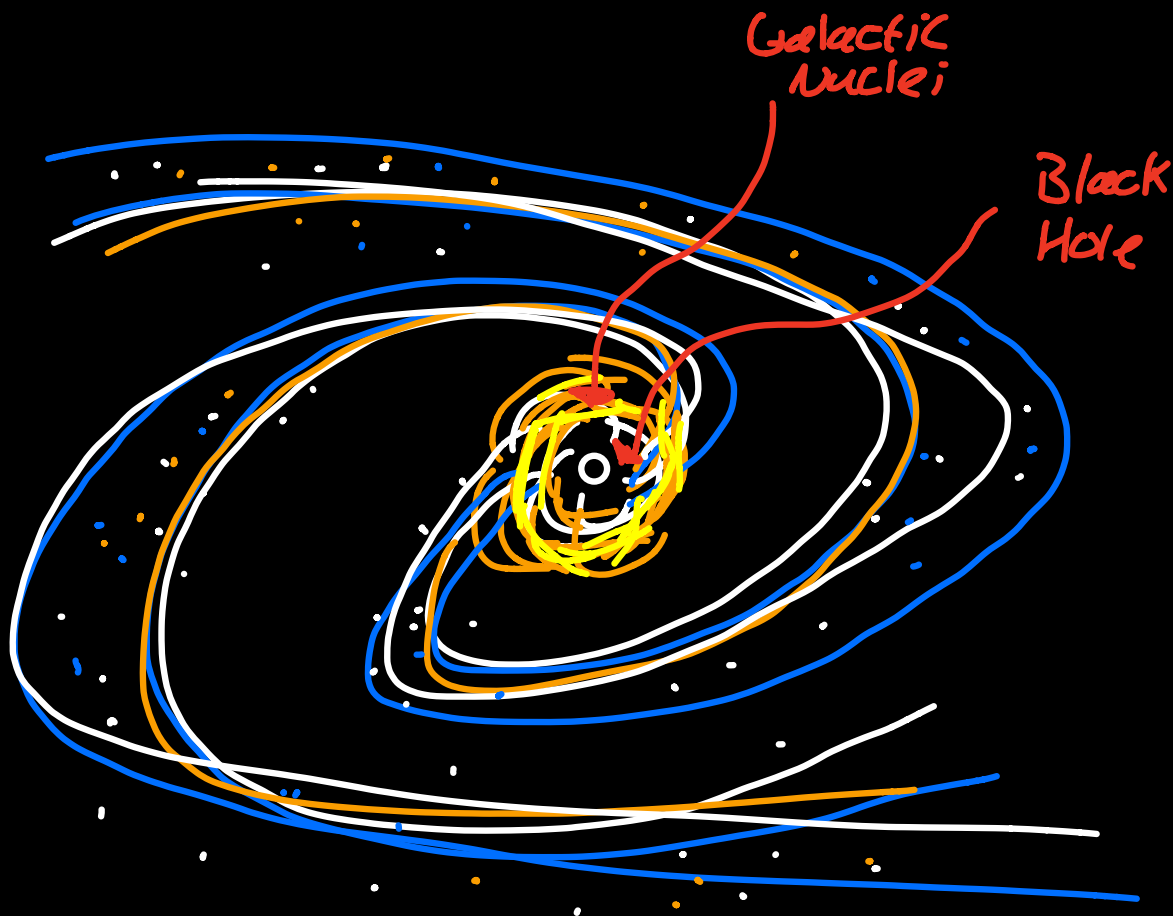
($2.17M_{\odot} \rightarrow$ Tolman-Offenheimer-
- Volkoff limit)



- Supermassive Black Holes:

$$10^5 M_{\odot} \lesssim M \lesssim 10^9 M_{\odot}$$

All moderately sized galaxies are thought to have a supermassive BH at the centre. These BH's are thought to be crucial to galaxy formation.



The Milky Way \rightarrow BH = Sagittarius
A*

$$M \sim 2.6 \cdot 10^6 M_{\odot}$$

- Primordial Black Holes:

$$M \lesssim M_{\odot}$$

BH'S formed (in theory) in the very early universe, when matter densities were high.

In practice, the PBH'S surviving today would have to be more massive than $\sim 10^{11}$ kg

($\sim 10^{-19} M_{\odot}$) else they would have decayed by present day.

PBH'S could contribute to DM in universe.

Currently no evidence for PBH'S.

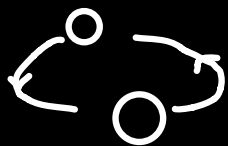
• Observing Black Holes:

Well, the thing about a black hole - its main distinguishing feature - is it's black. And the thing about space, your basic space colour, is black'

- Holly, Red Dwarf S3 EP 2

- Gravitational Radiation:

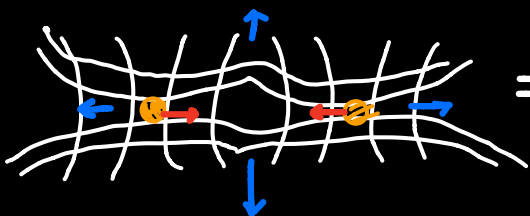
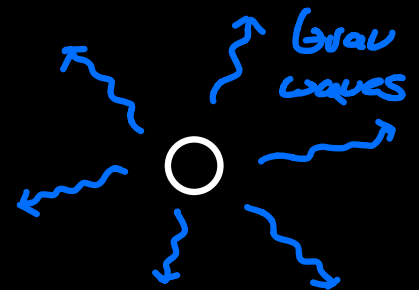
LIGO first detection → 14th Sept 2015



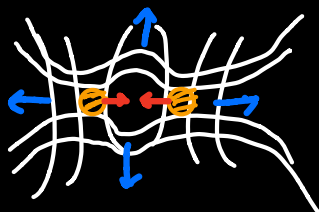
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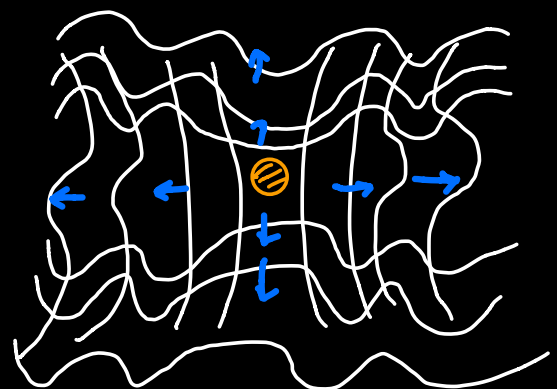
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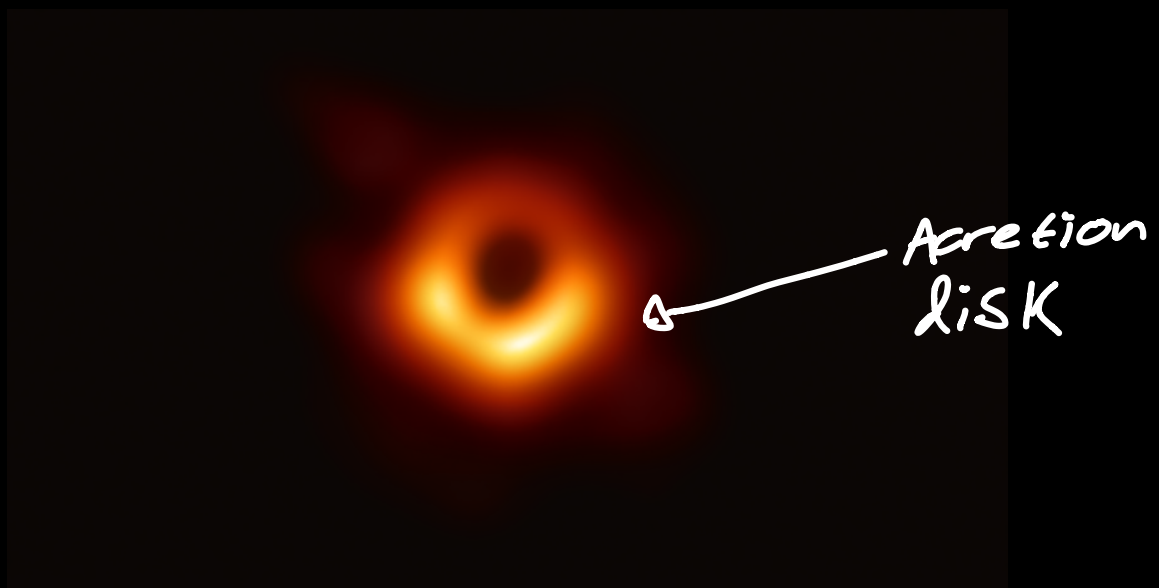
first detection Event:

Two black holes with masses
 $\sim 35 M_{\odot}$ and $\sim 30 M_{\odot}$
Merging.

Releasing energy $\sim 3 M_{\odot} \times c^2$

- Direct Imaging:

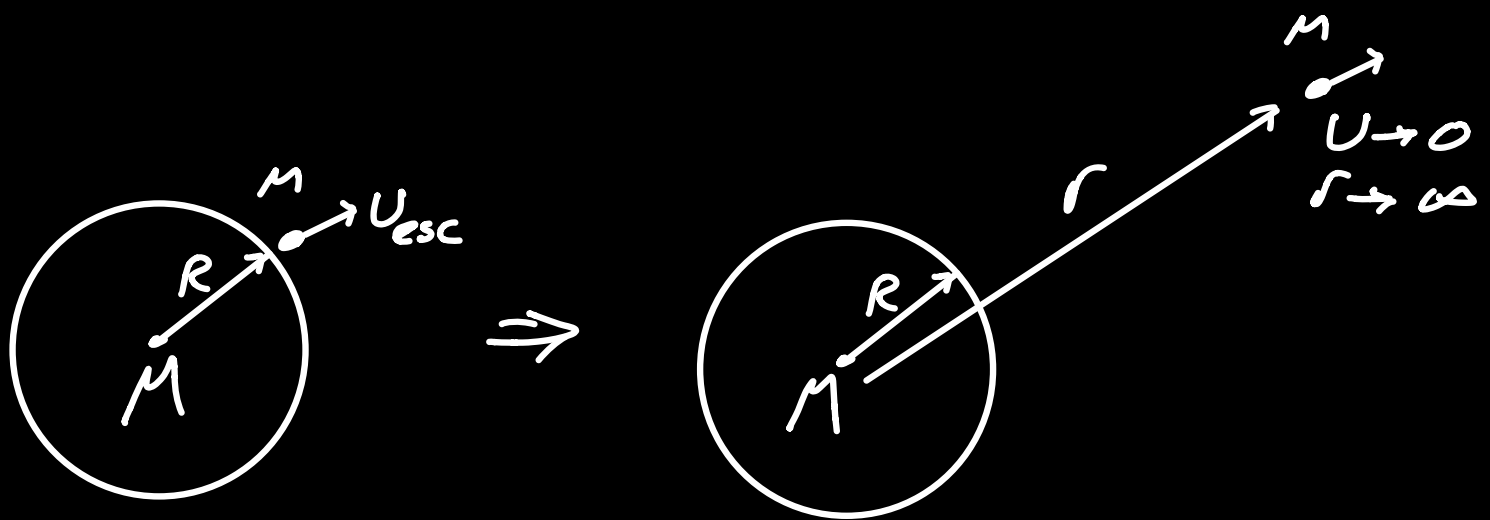
Image Published \rightarrow 10th April 2019



• Dark Stars:

circa ~ 1783

ordinary mass with escap velocity $> c$



$$-\frac{GMm}{R} + \frac{1}{2}mU_{esc}^2 = -\frac{GMm}{r} \Big|_{r \rightarrow \infty} + \frac{1}{2}mU^2 \Big|_{U \rightarrow 0}$$

$$\Rightarrow U_{esc}^2 = \frac{2GM}{R}$$

for a dark star, $U_{esc} = c$

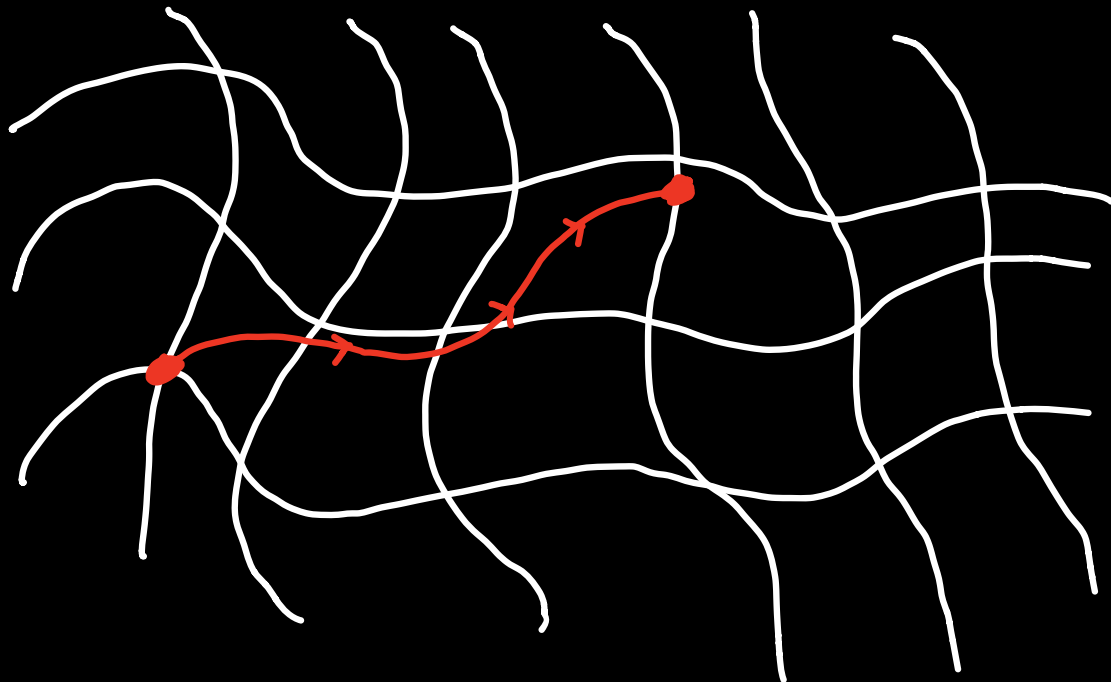
$$\Rightarrow R = \frac{2GM}{c^2} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Gravitational} \\ \text{radius} \end{array} \right. \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Actually same as} \\ \text{Schwarzschild radius in GR} \end{array} \right.$$

• General Relativity - Crash Course:

Equivalence Principle \rightarrow free falling observers feel no effects of gravity

Allows us to equate effects of gravity with 'free falling' paths through spacetime.

We call these paths \rightarrow Geodesics



Geodesic path will depend on curvature of the spacetime.

Gravity \simeq Curvature

Matter/Energy \leftrightarrow Gravity

Curvature of spacetime \sim Matter/Energy

T^{mn} → Describes Matter/Energy
distribution sourcing
gravitation
↑
Rank-2
Tensor

Multiple ways to describe curvature.

To equate to T_{mn} , we need
a rank-2 tensor describing
curvature.

October 1915
Einstein tried

$$R^{mn} \sim T^{mn}$$



Ricci curvature
tensor

But this is wrong

Why? — from SR.

$$\partial_m T^{mn} = 0$$

contains statements
of conservation of
Energy and momentum

⇒ In GR:

$$\nabla_m T^{mn} = 0$$

↑
Covariant
derivative

But $\nabla_m R^{mn} \neq 0$ in general

We need a rank-2
description of curvature
which has $\nabla_m (\text{Tensor}) = 0$

A crucial Identity from differential geometry:

$$\nabla_m \left(R_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{mn} \right) \equiv 0$$

Rank - 2

Ricci scalar
 $R = g^{mn} R_{mn}$

Bianchi identity (1889)

November 1915
Einstein wrote down

$$G_{mn} \sim T_{mn}$$

where $G_{mn} = R_{mn} - \frac{1}{2} R g_{mn}$

Can show by comparison with Newtonian theory:

$$G_{mn} = \frac{8\pi G}{c^4} T_{mn}$$

Einstein's field equations

R_{mn} ~ non linear combinations of second derivatives of g_{mn} \rightarrow solve equations \Rightarrow find metric g_{mn}

Equations are a system of non linear 2nd order PDE'S (very hard to solve)

December 1915

Schwarzschild found
the first analytic
solution



Schwarzschild
Metric

Describes spacetime
outside of a
spherically symmetric
matter distribution
(stars, planets, BH's)

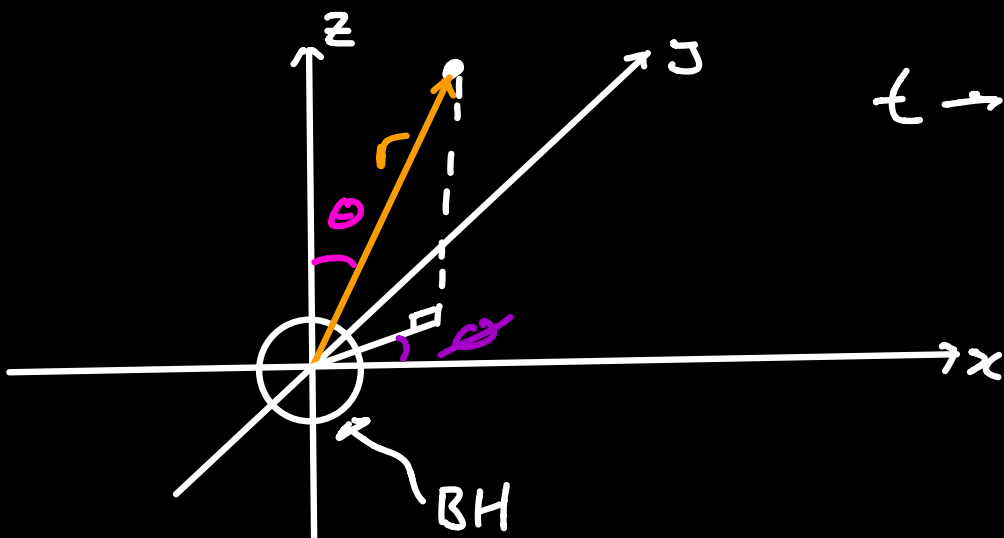
$$ds^2 = - \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right) c^2 dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{2GM}{rc^2}\right) dr^2 + \dots$$

↑
Invariant
space time
interval

$$\dots + r^2 d\Omega^2 = \underline{-c^2 d\tau^2}$$

Proper time of
observer at (r, θ, ϕ)

where $d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta d\phi^2$



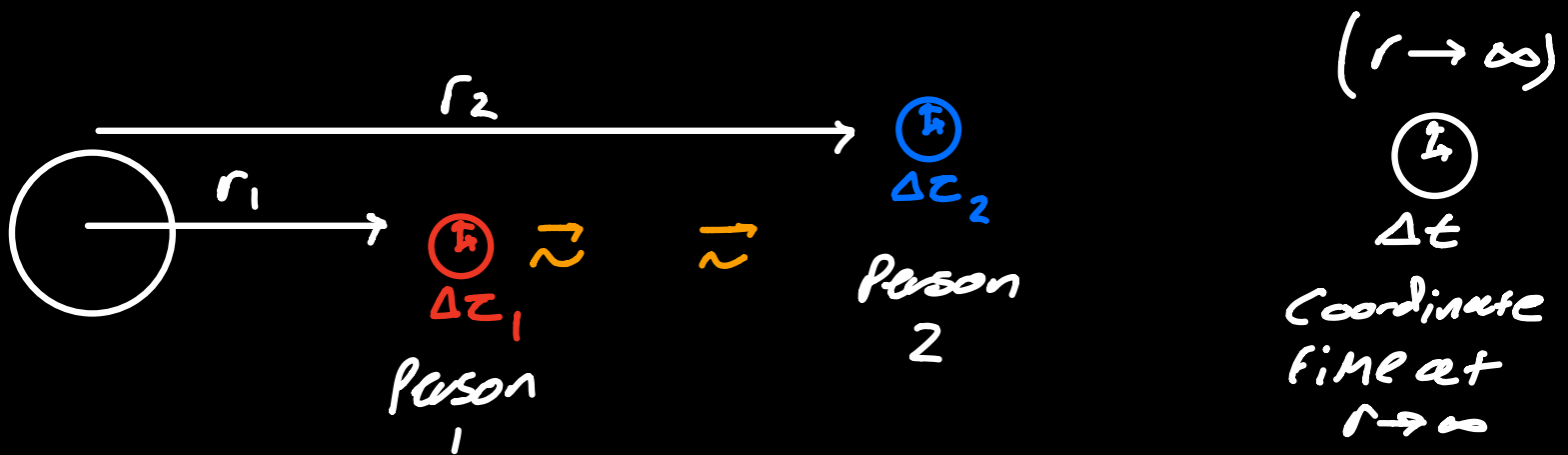
$t \rightarrow$ time coord
of observer
very far from
BH

• Time Dilation:

Replace $\frac{2GM}{c^2} = R_s$, Schwarzschild radius
 (radius of event horizon)

$$-c^2 d\tau^2 = -\left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) c^2 dt^2 + \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) dr^2 + \dots$$

$$\dots + r^2 d\Omega^2$$



$$-c^2 \Delta\tau_1^2 = -\left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r_1}\right) \Delta t^2$$

$$-c^2 \Delta\tau_2^2 = -\left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r_2}\right) \Delta t^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta\tau_1 = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{R_s}{r_1}}{1 - \frac{R_s}{r_2}}} \Delta\tau_2$$

$$\Delta\tau_1 < \Delta\tau_2$$

Black holes warp time.

The closer you are to a black hole,
the less time you experience.
(your clock ticks slower)

What happens as person 1 approaches the
horizon?

$$r_1 \rightarrow R_s$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta\tau_1 \rightarrow 0$$

while $\Delta\tau_2$ is finite

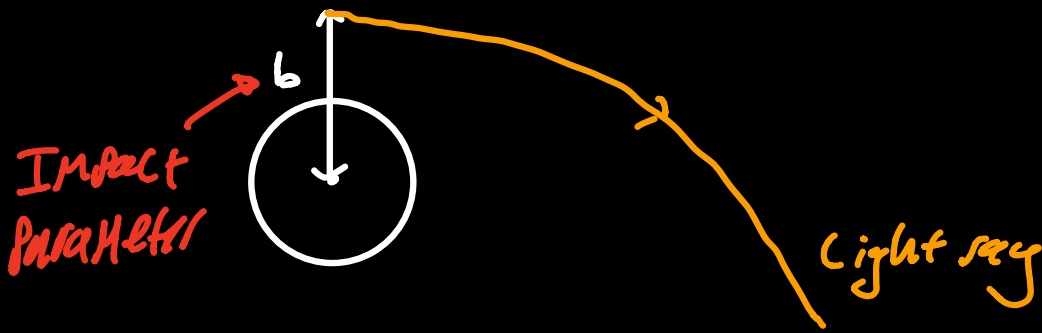
What would person 1 see?

They would see an event that would take a finite time measured by person 2 occur in a
→ 0 amount of time.

If you are near a black hole, time passes much faster further away.

Gravitational Lensing:

Light rays passing near BH's (or indeed other massive objects) are deflected.



$$L = 0 = -\left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) \left(\frac{dt}{d\lambda}\right)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right)^{-1} \left(\frac{dr}{d\lambda}\right)^2 + \dots$$

for light

$$\dots + r^2 \left(\frac{d\phi}{d\lambda}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{d}{d\lambda} (2r^2 \dot{\phi}) = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{\phi} = \frac{J}{r^2}$$

$$\cdot \frac{d}{d\lambda} \left[-2c^2 \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) \dot{t} \right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{t} = -\frac{E}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right)^{-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = -c^2 \left[\frac{E}{c^2} \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right)^{-1} \right]^2 \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) + \dots$$

$$\dots + \dot{r}^2 \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right)^{-1} + \frac{J^2}{r^2}$$

$$\dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} \left(1 - \frac{R_s}{r}\right) = \left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2$$

$$\dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{r^2} - \frac{R_s J^2}{r^3} = \left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2$$

Times by $\frac{1}{2}$ and compare with equation for orbits we found while studying Mercury: using $R_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2}$

for Light Deflection

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{2r^2} - \frac{GMJ^2}{c^2 r^3} = \frac{1}{2} c^2 \left(\frac{E}{c^2} \right)^2$$

for Matter orbiting

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{2r^2} - \frac{GM}{r} - \frac{GMJ^2}{c^2 r^3} = \frac{1}{2} c^2 \left[\left(\frac{E}{c^2} \right)^2 - 1 \right]$$

Newtonian Potential term not present for light

Light deflection/gravitational lensing is a purely GR effect.

$$\frac{1}{2} \dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{2r^2} - \frac{GMJ^2}{c^2 r^3} = \frac{1}{2} c^2 \left(\frac{E}{c^2} \right)^2$$

We do to this as we did to the Matter orbit equation last time.

Change variables $u = \frac{1}{r}$, and then differentiate both sides w.r.t ϕ :

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 u}{d\phi^2} + u - \frac{3}{2} R_s u^2 = 0$$

In contrast to result we derived for Mercury:

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\phi^2} + u - \frac{3GM}{c^2} u^2 - \frac{GM}{J^2} = 0$$

↑
This is missing

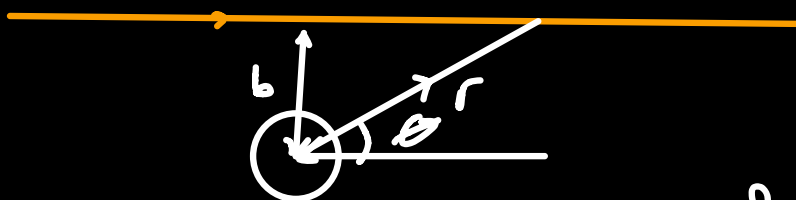
$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\phi^2} + u - \frac{3}{2} R_s u^2 = 0$$

R_s will be
a small length
scale for the
problem

Treating $R_s \ll b$; $\Rightarrow b = \frac{B}{\epsilon}$ for some
small $\epsilon > 0$

If we ignore this $\frac{3}{2} R_s u^2$ GR
term;

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\phi^2} + u = 0 \Rightarrow u = \frac{1}{b} \text{ at } \phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$$



$$\Rightarrow u = \frac{1}{b} \sin \phi$$

no deflection

Now include GR term as a small perturbation the equation:

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\varphi^2} + u - \frac{3}{2} R_s u^2 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \frac{1}{6} \sin\varphi + \varepsilon^2 f(\varphi) \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon}{13} \sin\varphi + \varepsilon^2 f(\varphi) \end{aligned}$$

$$\varepsilon^1 \text{ order: } u = \frac{1}{6} \sin\varphi$$

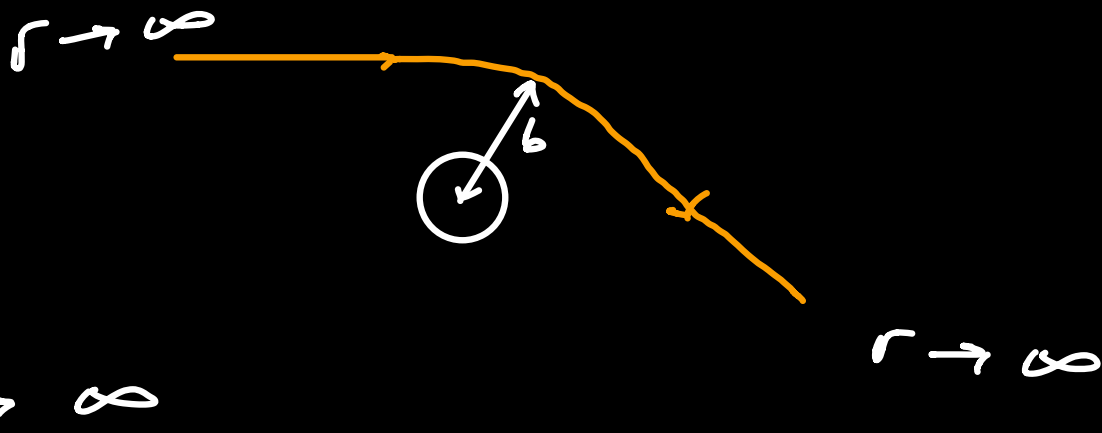
$$\varepsilon^2 \text{ order: } f''(\varphi) + f(\varphi) - \frac{3}{2} R_s \left(\frac{1}{6} \sin\varphi \right)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f''(\varphi) + f(\varphi) - \frac{3}{2} R_s \frac{1}{6^2} \sin^2\varphi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f''(\varphi) + f(\varphi) - \frac{3}{4} R_s \frac{1}{6^2} (1 - \cos 2\varphi) = 0$$

$$f''(\varphi) = \frac{3}{4} R_s \frac{1}{B^2} + \frac{1}{4} R_s \frac{1}{B^2} \cos 2\varphi$$

$$\Rightarrow u = \frac{1}{6} \sin \varphi + \frac{1}{4} R_s \frac{1}{b^2} (3 + \cos 2\varphi)$$



$$\Rightarrow u \rightarrow 0$$

for small deflections

$$\sin \varphi \sim \varphi$$

$$\cos \varphi \sim 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \frac{1}{6} \Delta \varphi + \frac{1}{4} R_s \frac{1}{b^2} (3+1)$$

$$|\Delta\phi| = \frac{R_s}{b}$$

factor of 2 odd....
will find another
time